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ABSTRACT

This document consists of the two issues published during 1997 of the newsletter of the Japan Association for Language Teaching's national special interest group (N-SIG) on foreign language literacy. The major articles in these two issues are: "How To Develop Reading-To-Do Skills in Engineering Education" (Esko Johnson); "Key Concepts in Literacy: Phonics vs. Whole Language" (Charles Jannuzi); "Success with Writing" (Paul Lewis); "Links to Literacy: Sites on the World Wide Web"; "Guessing Word Meaning from Context: Should We Encourage It?" (David Dycus); "Key Concepts in FL Literacy: Schema Theory" (Charles Jannuzi); "Japanese and English Rhetorical Strategies: A Contrastive Analysis" (Bern Mulvey) (in Japanese, with English abstract); and "Booksellers on the WWW" (Charles Jannuzi). Book and article reviews are also included in each number. (MSE)

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Literacy Across Cultures

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Literacy Across Cultures

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Newsletter of the JALT Foreign Language Literacy N-SIG

June 1997 Volume 1, Number 1

How to Develop Reading-To-Do Skills in Engineering Education

Key Concepts in Literacy: Phonics vs. Whole Language

Success With Writing

Computer Literacy

Links to Literacy

It Is Written...

Book and article reviews

Our Statement of Purpose

Literacy in one's first language (L1) has become essential for virtually anyone wishing to function in most of the modern world. At the same time, growing contact between the world's people has increased the need for foreign language learning and has highlighted the need for a greater understanding of the aspects, processes, development and implications of FL literacy (FLL). The Foreign Language Literacy National Special Interest Group (FLL N-SIG) (presently a provisional special interest group under the auspices of the Japan Association for Language Teaching) seeks to network people, ideas, theory, practice and experiences that can help lead to a better understanding of FLL. In doing so, we aim to move beyond idealized constructs of the L2 and FL learner, and to make clear the differences between L1, L2 and FL literacy practices, processes and theoretical models.

To do this, we seek to encourage locally relevant research into foreign language literacy in Japan and to map out commonalities and differences between features of foreign language literacy in Japan and in other countries. The FLL N-SIG also aims to foster and network study groups and local grassroots linkups with teachers in other countries in order to learn about their situations and needs, and to create greater understanding and mutual cooperation between teachers in different countries and situations.

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How to Develop Reading-To-Do Skills in Engineering Education

Esko Johnson
Kokkola Institute of Technology

Technologists read technical manuals and handbooks in a foreign language on a day-to-day basis, as shown in needs analysis studies. To meet this need, institutions of technical education are committed to teaching their students the functional (reading-to-do) literacy skills of the domain. These skills are usually taught in connection with foreign language education.

A study that I conducted (Johnson, 1997) looked into the ways in which pairs of engineering students accessed instruction texts in a real-life setting. In reading-to-do sessions, the participant pairs were required to act upon technical instructions. The selection of participant tasks included installing a bus mouse on a microcomputer, setting the clock and timer of a video cassette recorder, and making an audio recording with a tape deck. The tasks took from 9 min. to 1 hr. 20 min to complete and session time used for reading ranged from 7% to 76%. The strategies of accessing the manual text varied from step-by-step microprocessing (i.e., making sense of the text very slowly) to extremely casual top-down reading. Pair participation ranged from individual sub-tasking to shared problem-solving and negotiation of textual meaning.

Finland

However, not very much is known about "real-life" manual reading: how the text and the task are processed, and what factors come into play in the context. The aim of this article is to discuss the findings of a recent reading-to-do study and to propose ideas for the design of literacy instruction.

Procedural, metacognitive, and content-specific knowledge—either instantiated individually or negotiated by the pair—had a crucial role in task completion and in accessing the manual text successfully. Depending on individual orientation and the approach negotiated between the partners, the lack of "what-to-do" knowledge could be offset by joint reading, shared problem-solving, and heuristics. On the other hand, if the gap of knowledge between the pair was wide and the individual approaches in reading-to-do were very different, the pair was likely to end up in subtasking, with a low level of collaboration.

Meta-orientation

The interplay of the real-world task and reading is best put into the form of a meta-orientation:

- if you experience uncertainty about the problem you need to solve, seek information to resolve that uncertainty;
- next, work on the information to construct knowledge which will help you solve the problem in practical terms.

The meta-orientation is meta-cognitive, and thus involves processes like self-monitoring and evaluation (cf. Block, 1986, 1992). It is also conditional. An example of this would be that information search and construction of knowledge are optional, and usually instantiated only if necessary (cf. Larch, Larch, and Classes, 1993). Information search and construction of knowledge for the problem at hand are interconnected. The meta-orientation is important as it helps us understand the variation of processes and approaches in reading-to-do.

A particular type of literacy, such as reading-to-do when installing computer hardware, relates to much more than the linguistic content, mental representations, or reading processes involved (Hudson 1987, Venetzky 1990). What is most important is the function which is

embedded in the contextualised situation. I believe that these combined factors indicate that the common view that literacy skills are easily transferred from one context to another should be reconsidered.

It seems reasonable, then, that the student would benefit from being allowed to develop his/her functional language processing skills in the full context of the task. This would be an alternative to various "activity-driven" approaches, with carefully designed input of linguistic content and learner training, that typically attempt to monitor and model the text-processing strategies of the student. I propose a task-based approach, where the student proceeds from the whole-task perspective, with instructional exposure and input similar to the real-life context.

Task-based learning for global learning

Task-based learning (Candlin 1987:522) is seen as more motivating and meaningful for the student than traditional approaches, and is an approach which should correspond well with the target skills of the specialist domain for which the student is being trained. In task-based learning, materials, media and tools should be chosen that the student is likely to use after training; assessment techniques and student evaluation should support this. Learner contribution in the design stage of the task is highly recommended. But how can the teacher—who in most cases would teach L2 reading in a more piecemeal fashion—manage the (potential) variability of ensuing learning situations and cognition processes?

I suggest that systematic control of how the student processes the linguistic input is not of prime instructional importance. Instead, the teacher should tune in to the global aspect. The individual development of professional literacy skills and strategies might then be best achieved by promoting context-specific transfer of learning and learner independence. The teacher's main concern would thus be to facilitate the acquisition of literacy practices for successful problem-solving and related cognitive processes.

The tasks assigned to students should be completed collaboratively. The findings of this study indicate that pair collaboration is positive and helpful; it makes practical problem-solving with reading faster, facilitates synergetic processes, and potentially leads to a high amount of shared cognition. In a realistic way, the participants recognise and modify the various roles they have in the task and in reading. The motivation for collaboration appears substantial. In my study, disagreement on a joint cognitive process was only to be found on practical issues, not on the foundation of collaboration itself. The participants in this study also produced a wide range of realistic evaluations about their own and their partner's contribution. This indicates that metacognitive and learning-to-learn skills are naturally acquired in such a setting.

Materials and methods

Text-based learning in engineering education requires domain-specific materials and media that are rarely to be found in the immediate learning environment of the language classroom. One possible answer to this problem is team-teaching. Teachers could bring in other content teachers with their special professional knowledge, which would provide students a more reliable way of recognising domain-specific, context-based discourse practises. It would also allow the introduction and development of literacy skills across the curriculum.

Rather than working from a generic model of a strategic reader, the teacher should set out to establish a climate which supports not only the development of reading skills but also roles required in collaboration. This involves observing how the students read and co-operate during task completion, and resorting to indirect rather than direct

feedback while the reflective problem-solving process is in progress. This approach lets the practical task "talk to" and "teach" the student.

After completing the task, the students' reading processes could be discussed in the foreign language classroom. A retrospective discussion of how the text was processed should guide the student to improve his/her literacy skills. A useful support for the didactic discussions would be a postreading questionnaire filled in by the students after the task. Through these activities, students are able to verbalise their reading-to-do tactics in a meaningful way.

The curricular objectives of foreign language instruction in engineering education have a focus on technical writing as well. The full scale of domain-specific literacy could be explored by involving the students in a reading-writing connection (i.e., in foreign-language instruction where the reading and writing of texts take place simultaneously). Classroom activities could combine the study of authentic manual texts and the design of operating instructions for real-life equipment that are available in the language class or in the school premises. Process writing in a collaborative manner would be especially beneficial for this kind of instructional approach.

Conclusion

People reading technical books and manuals in a foreign language have special needs, which are best met by focussing on their meta-orientation by using a task-based approach.

Task-based collaborative work is especially useful in helping such readers learn reading skills, and also provides interaction which allows them to develop their meta-cognitive strategies and learner independence.

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What do you think is the single greatest problem your students face in learning to read or write in a foreign language?

Write or e-mail in your response to Literacy Across Cultures and we will try to compile a list of responses for an upcoming issue. All responses must be received by August 15, 1997. See p. 13 for addresses.

Key Concepts in Literacy: Phonics vs. Whole Language

Charles Jannuzi
Fukui University

The phonics vs. whole language distinction has at least two realities: (1) as a split in instructional philosophies for teaching the acquisition and development of beginning literacy and (2) as a rather heated political debate playing itself out in the English-speaking countries (no doubt most divisively in the United States). I will look at the concepts of phonics and whole language in relation to these two contexts and then attempt to show how these concepts might prove meaningful and useful to EFL literacy.

Phonics is a way of teaching reading and spelling that stresses symbol-sound relationships, used especially in beginning instruction (Harris & Hodges, 1995, p. 186). This definition, of course, refers specifically to beginning instruction of native language literacy. There is a large set of different phonics approaches to such instruction, including: analytic, cluster, deductive, explicit, extrinsic, implicit, inductive, instrinsic, letter, synthetic, and whole-word (Harris & Hodges, 1995, p. 186)

Japan

The need for phonics instruction is based on the fairly well accepted idea that phonemic awareness is a necessary pre-reading skill for literacy in an alphabetic written language. However, the writing system of English is neither phonetically nor phonemically so clear-cut,and this is where phonics approaches might prove useful. While the ability to break words down into syllables comes fairly natural to native language speakers, the skill of analyzing language further into the distinct units of sound known as phonemes is one that must be taught. The goal of phonics instruction is to clarify and reinforce the learning of phonemic awareness and then to relate it to the spelling conventions of written English. If done effectively, it might act as a cognitive bridge from phonemic awareness to decoding fluency of the writing system and actual beginning literacy.

Whole language is a much more wide-ranging but fuzzy concept than phonics. More than anything it is a broad, ambitious, humanistic, largely teacher-led movement that rejects overly deductive and analytic methodology and favors individualized, student-centered activities in beginning literacy instruction. Given whole language's considerable depth and sweep, it is easy to see how some of its advocates as both classroom practitioners and theorists might reject phonics. As Strickland (in Harris & Hodges, 1995) explains, the crux of the disagreement is this:

> Issues surrounding phonics and the teaching of discrete skills evoke the most heated discussions about whole language. Because whole language teachers believe that all language systems are interwoven, they avoid the segmentation of language into component parts for specific skill instruction (p. 280).

Still, regardless of popular misconceptions, a whole language approach does not require the total rejection of phonics. Rather, "[t]he use of strategies taught in meaningful contexts is

emphasized. Phonics is taught through writing by focusing on the patterns of language in reading..." (Strickland, in Harris & Hodges, 1995, p. 280).

The 1980s saw a definite swing to the right in the politics of two of the most populous and influential English speaking countries, the USA and the UK. Part of this movement rightward was a call for a return to basics in education. Rightwing critiques of what was wrong with society, its schools, and education singled out theories and practices that were seen as too progressive and humanistic. This meant that whole language advocates found their often misunderstood and poorly supported approach undergoing withering criticism. In California there was even an attempt to link whole language with everything that had been thought to have gone wrong in its education system. A recent article in *Reading Today* reports, "the perceived lack of phonics instruction in American schools has led some policy-makers to issue educational mandates that have affected classrooms throughout the state of California, as well as in a host of local school districts throughout the United States (April/May 1997, p. 1)."

So heated (and perhaps pointlessly bitter) has the debate become that the International Reading Association's Board of Directors felt compelled to publish a position statement on the place of phonics in the elementary/beginning literacy curriculum, the most important assertion of which reads, "Phonics instruction, to be effective in promoting independence in reading, must be embedded in the context of a total reading/language arts program" (Reading Today, April/May 1997, p. 1).

Stripped of most of its liberal vs. conservative politics, the phonics vs. whole language debate still holds lessons for theorists and practitioners in ELT and in EFL Literacy. First, much of what literacy and language arts educators find attractive in the whole language movement has its parallels in recent ELT: meaningful/ communicative/real world language use, learner-and learning-centered activities, individualized instruction, and the classroom integration of all (rather than isolation of discrete) language skills. In other words, much of what we identify with modern, communicative ELT fits well with the whole language philosophy. But second, ELT is undergoing something of its own reactionary response to the communicative paradigm: I perceive a growing concern that communicative approaches result in poor language production because not enough care is given to discrete language building skills, such as pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary. And just as with whole language approaches, many school administrators and teachers may not be prepared for the sort of commitment to re-training and micro-management of the learning environment that communicative ELT requires.

The question for ELT practitioners is: Is either a phonics or whole language approach adaptable to beginning literacy in EFL? Or, perhaps, what elements of each are appropriate? True, many of the progressive and humanistic elements of the whole language philosophy may seem appealing to teachers trained in the communicative paradigm; but, as anyone who has had to teach EFL beginners knows, such students don't have a whole lot of language skills to draw on. Of course it would be detrimental to deny the fact that our students are literate, native speakers of another language. However, the real danger is probably going too far the other way and bogging down in cross-linguistic approaches that attempt to map out the whole target language in terms of the native one.

The issues concerning what needs to be taught and how it might be best presented to EFL beginners are not simple ones. Written English uses a complex, somewhat

inconsistent writing system that is confusing for many learners (both FL and native ones). Basically what has happened is this: 26 roman letters are used to represent over 40 sounds to create hundreds of spelling patterns, and there are many common sight words that don't fit any patterns. And if phonemic awareness is generally considered to be necessary for mastering an alphabetic writing system, what of EFL learners whose only internalized phonology is that of their mother tongue? How are, for example, Japanese learners to gain fluency in decoding the jungle of written English with only the sounds of spoken Japanese and an ability to analyze language that stops at the syllable (for the most part, written Japanese subsists at the word/morpheme and syllabic level)?

The best solution to this problem is probably phonics instruction before students are required to open and attempt to read their EFL textbooks. Systematic phonics attempts to emphasize the regularity of written English and to create an entry-level fluency in learners so that they can go on to learn to read for meaning.

Bluntly put, if the lower-level, bottom-up decoding and reading skills are not there, beginning EFL readers will simply not have the reading "energy" to work on word- and sentence-level meaning, let alone critical reading and appreciation skills. Inability with the phonology and writing system and how the two relate will create insurmountable bottlenecks in information processsing, bottlenecks that top-down and cross-linguistic approaches to language instruction can do little to remediate. However, since phonics (indeed, FL Literacy as a whole) is not really part of the ELT mainstream and approaches based on bottom-up linguistics are not much understood or appreciated by teachers in the communicative paradigm, its advocates will have their work cut out for them.

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Watch for the Foreign Language Literacy N-SIG's roundtable presentation at the 1997 JALT International Conference in Hamamatsu!

Software Review

Success With Writing

Paul Lewis
Aichi Shukutoku Junior College

As part of the curriculum at Kinjo Gakuin University in Nagoya, Japan, all second-year English majors take a composition course held in a CALL lab. The course is very firmly based around the process of writing, and it is interesting to see how the software works to aid this.

The main software text for the course is Success With Writing (Scholastic) which has been available for a number of years. Although the underlying thrust of the software is in the right direction, there are a number of drawbacks which have become apparent. Axiomatic to the course are some acronymns. "PACE" is the main one, where the initials stand for "Prewriting, Arranging, Composing, and Evaluating." Each of these stages has its own menu item.

The various "Prewriting" exercises are intended to emphasise fluency and encourage the writer not to be overly concerned with grammar or spelling, which both come in at a later stage. The "Freewriting" activity shows one area where the computer has an advantage over the pen: the writer is not able to delete or backspace. This surprises many at first, but writers soon turn it to their advantage, and increased fluency of ideas is the result. Not only can the writer not edit the work, but if she pauses for more than a breath, a message appears urging her to keep working. This has finally succeeded in moving students beyond the "write one word, think about it, then erase it and start again" strategy.

The "Arrange" menu contains templates for many types of composition, including "Narrative Essay," "Persuasive Essay," "Descriptive Essay," and "Book Report." Upon choosing one, the writer works through a series of appropriate questions and sorting operations, and is rewarded with an essay plan. In most of the exercises, the TAG system is emphasised (Topic, Audience, Goal), and these are often the first three questions. Then, the main categories are entered, with supporting details added in turn. The writer is often asked for six examples, which can take some time to think up, although the program seems limited, and the writer is forced to select the best two in each case.

One drawback of this kind of "pattern essay" is clear: it is inflexible. However, the force with which this takes the writers away from Japanese rhetorical structures makes this still worthwhile at second-year level. A more serious drawback, however, lies in the programming, which does not allow work to be saved until the end point. This, in combination with a clumsily placed "Cancel" button that can delete the whole document, makes it easy for students to lose their work. This generally happens once per lesson.

Having printed out the arranged essay plan, students proceed to the composing stage. The program contains a basic word processer, although we tend to use more sophisticated programs instead. Evaluating is a very subjective matter, and computers have limited ability in this at present. Numerical aspects come easily though, and there are plenty of these, including a corpus function, average word count, word length, and number of words per sentence/ paragraph. More mysterious is the "Approximate Readability Level," which appears to be a combination of the other statistics. However, measures of this kind are highly suspect at best, and can even become detrimental to writing if used out of context.

For example, the average word-count per sentence may represent different styles rather than readability levels, and the computer is, at present, blind to these.

Other evaluation tools range in usefulness. The "Cliches" command searches for pre-programmed idioms, and allows the writer to replace these. The double word search finds instances of double words, typed in error, although this is perhaps included more for its ease of programming than its real utility. A spelling checker would have been considerably more useful. Unfortunately, none of the evaluation results can be saved into a text file, which is a little surprising, although they can be printed.

Note that the accompanying text book has not been mentioned in this review. This is because it is clearly intended for teenage native speakers in both tone and language, and is not really appropriate for Japanese college students. The strength of the package lies in using the software itself, rather than struggling with the book's rubric and exercises.

Although there are some minor flaws and omissions with the program, it remains an excellent piece of software which goes a long way to providing a basis for process writing at a lower level. I sincerely hope that the publishers decide to reprogram this package, using state-of-the-art technology.

Paul Lewis, Aichi Shukutoku Junior College, is the JALT CALL N-SIG's Telecommunications Chair and is Assistant Editor of *The Language Teacher*.

Links to Literacy

Sites on the World Wide Web

Schools, Teachers, Students, and Computers: a Cross-National Perspective
<http://uttou2.to.utwente.nl/comped/fr2/contents.htm>

Though not really a site about literacy itself, it nevertheless is an interesting site for those interested in computer and hypertextual literacy. At this site you can download and read an entire monograph about computers in education, *Schools, Teachers, Students, and Computers: a Cross-National Perspective*. The book itself is a very interesting one which incorporates a lot of truly international data, and it's fascinating to see how the concept of a printed hard copy of a book has been translated into the soft reality of the Web.

Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy (ISAL)
<http://www.psu.edu/institutes/isal/>

Homepage for the Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy at the College of Education, Penn State University. Features that may interest you include a very good links page to other literacy-related sites, a description of institutional software, and publications that you can order.

The International Reading Association (IRA)
<http://www.ira.org/>

This site is the WWW presence of the International Reading Association (IRA), the largest literacy organization in the

world, and has a lot of features worth checking out. Perhaps the most notable right now is the launching of the new on-line publication, *Reading Online*, and the information about the somewhat controversial standards that the IRA and the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) co-published recently.

National Institute for Literacy (NIFL)
<http://novel.nifl.gov/>

This is the website for the US government's National Institute for Literacy. This site is one of the best for exploring literacy in all its forms. There is a searchable database that takes in other sites and an abundance of information about publications, events, literacy and education resources, and e-mail discussion forums.

National Adult Literacy and Learning Disabilities Center (NALLD)
<http://novel.nifl.gov/nalldtop.htm>

This is the homepage of the National Adult Literacy and Learning Disabilities Center (part of the National Institute for Literacy). It's interesting how learning disabilities and disorders are considered a very serious and common problem in native language literacy in the English-speaking countries but how mainstream TESOL/ELT all but ignores them. This is a very good place to start exploring LD.

Have you found any good sites?
If you know of any good WWW sites related to reading, writing, literacy instruction or other issues related to literacy, why not share them with us? All published submissions will be acknowledged. Send your sites along with a brief description to David Dycus (dcdycus@asu.aasa.ac.jp).

Watch for Our Homepage, Coming Soon!

<http://langue.hyper.chubu.ac.jp/jalt/nsig/fll/fll.html>

The FLL N-SIG is now planning a home page, which we hope to have on-line by July 15, 1997, and possibly sooner. The site will initially contain this newsletter and links to sites related to literacy and to the teaching and learning of FL/L2 reading and writing.

We also hope to maintain archives of foreign language literacy related materials, such as book and article reviews, research reports, annotated bibliographies, etc., for on-line access. Our goal is to allow people from around the world to share their foreign language literacy-related knowledge and experiences with each other.

Whether or not this will succeed depends on people contributing to the home page. If you would like to contribute by e-mail, please contact Charles Jannuzi (jannuzi@edu00.f-edu.fukui-u.ac.jp) or David Dycus (dcdycus@asu.aassa.ac.jp). Contributions by regular mail can be sent to David Dycus (address on p. 13).

It is Written...

Book and Article Reviews

Handbook of Reading Research, Vol. II. Rebecca Barr et al. (Eds.). Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1996 (originally published in 1991). Pp. xviii + 1086. ISBN 0-8058-2416-2 (soft cover).

The *Handbook of Reading Research, Vol. II*, is a collection of 34 articles covering a wide range of theoretical and practical issues related to reading and literacy, with each article written by an acknowledged specialist in the field. Although it is daunting in size (weighing in at over 1086 pages), it's scope and depth are impressive. The articles it contains cover virtually every major area of research and theory in reading today, as well as literacy issues and trends in reading and literacy instruction. Though the book is certainly not meant as an introduction to the field of reading research, all of the articles provide a concise but comprehensive survey of the topics they deal with, and can provide an excellent starting point for anyone new to that area of interest.

Part One of the book (7 chapters) is dedicated to articles about "Society and Literacy." Part Two (7 chapters) and Part Three (11 chapters) are entitled "Task and Format Variables in Reading Research" and "Constructs of the Reader Process" respectively, and Part Four, "Literacy and Schooling," rounds out the book with a focus on practical reading- and literacy-related concerns.

There are some disappointing aspects to this book. The 1996 publication date is misleading: the book was originally published in 1991, meaning that the most recent references in it date only up to about 1989. Also, those who have read the first volume of the series (*Handbook of Reading Research*, Longman, 1984), and are hoping the second volume contains updates of the same topics by the same authors, will be disappointed. Still, since major questions and research orientations did not drastically change between 1984 and 1991, one can generally find some, and often much, newer information about any topic discussed in the first volume.

There are certainly advantages gained from this format change. Part One, "Society and Literacy," discusses an important subject not specifically covered in the 1984 volume. Also, despite the format change, Part Two and Part Three cover many of the theoretical topics found in the first volume.

Those specifically interested in Foreign Language Literacy (FLL) should be aware that much of the book deals only with L1 reading, and that Part Four deals almost exclusively with problems in the United States. Still, there is much in this section, and in the book itself, that can be of use to those interested in FLL.

Considering its length and the breadth of the topics it contains, this book is not for everyone, but is certainly for anyone with a serious interest in reading research.

Reviewed by David Dycus
Aichi Shukutoku University
Nagoya, Japan

In addition to book reviews, Literacy Across Cultures welcomes summaries and reviews of articles from both major and less well-known journals.

Are you a JALT member? Then join us!

The Foreign Language Literacy National Special Interest Group is presently forming under the auspices of the Japan Association of Language Teachers. Although we are active and receive some support from JALT, we cannot be be fully recognized as an affiliate N-SIG until we have more members. If you are a JALT member and have an interest in some facet of reading, writing and/or literacy, please join us!

JALT members can join the FLL N-SIG by sending ¥1500 to the JALT Central Office using the postal money transfer (yubin furikae) form included in issues of The Language Teacher. On the line labeled "N-SIGs", write " FLL N-SIG (forming.)"

Members and those interested in becoming members can contact Charles Jannuzi by e-mail (Jannuzi@edu00.f-edu.fukui-u.ac.jp) or at the mailing address listed on page 2 of this newsletter.

Not a JALT member?

Because we operate under the auspices of JALT, only JALT members can become members of the FLL N-SIG. However, at present, non-members in any country can receive copies of our newsletter, Literacy Across Cultures, and are encouraged to contribute articles, perspective pieces, and reviews to it. To allow as wide a distribution as possible, we are sending this newsletter out by e-mail as well as in print. If you would like the e-mail version, please contact Charles Jannuzi (Jannuzi@edu00.f-edu.fukui-u.ac.jp). For information on obtaining a printed version contact David Dycus by e-mail (dcdycus@asu.aasa.ac.jp) or at:

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Guidelines for Submissions

JALT's Foreign Language Literacy N-SIG (forming) is looking for submissions, in English or Japanese, on topics related to reading and writing and their social product, literacy. A specific emphasis will be on the possible construction, development and exploration of L2 learning, L2 literacy, and effective instruction. We encourage any interested person to submit

- short articles (around 500-1000 words, sparsely referenced),
- perspective/opinion pieces (around 300-500 words unreferenced or sparsely referenced)
- book reviews (between 300-500 words)
- annotated bibliographies
- short summaries/reviews of relevant journal articless (up to 300 words)
- classroom and teaching tips (up to 300 words)

for upcoming issues of its newsletter, Literacy Across Cultures . In addition, we also welcome lists of references on topics related to literacy, both for the newsletter and to help build a references list to include in a home page now being planned. The deadline is August 15, 1997 for submissions to be considered for the September, 1997 issue. Submissions received after that will be considered for future issues. We encourage relevant submissions that may not fit into any of the categories above.
(Cont. on p. 13)

Submissions can be made in the following ways: 1) As attachments to an e-mail message to the newletter editor. The text should be provided twice, once in a Text file (.TXT) format and once in a Rich Text Format (.RTF). The e-mail should include a brief message to the editor explaining the content of the submission and a short personal biography to accompany thesubmission if accepted. The message should include information about what computer OS was used (Mac or IBM) and what word processor was used, including the version number of that software. It should be sent to David Dycus, the newsletter editor at dcdycus@asu.aasa.ac.jp.

2) On a 1.44 mb floppy disk accompanied by a printed version of the submission. The text on the floppy disk should be provided in three formats, once in a Text file (.TXT) format and once in a Rich Text Format (.RTF), and once in whatever the original format of the wordprocessing software is. A short personal biography should accompany the submission. It should be sent to:

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Anyone with questions should contact David Dycus at the addresses above, or by FAX at 0568-85-2560 (outside of Japan, that is 81-568-85-2560).

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Literacy Across Cultures

Newsletter of the JALT Foreign Language Literacy N-SIG
September, 1997 Volume 1, Number 2

Guessing Word Meaning from Context: Should We Encourage It?

Key Concepts in FL Literacy: Schema Theory

英文による小論文の構成方法について [Japanese and English Rhetorical Strategies: A Contrastive Analysis]

Booksellers on the WWW

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It Is Written...

Our Statement of Purpose

Literacy in one's first language (L1) has become essential for virtually anyone wishing to function in most of the modern world. At the same time, growing contact between the world's people has increased the need for foreign language learning and has highlighted the need for a greater understanding of the aspects, processes, development and implications of FL literacy (FLL). The Foreign Language Literacy National Special Interest Group (FLL N-SIG) (presently a provisional special interest group under the auspices of the Japan Association for Language Teaching) seeks to network people, ideas, theory, practice and experiences that can help lead to a better understanding of FLL. In doing so, we aim to move beyond idealized constructs of the L2 and FL learner, and to make clear the differences between L1, L2 and FL literacy practices, processes and theoretical models.

To do this, we seek to encourage locally relevant research into foreign language literacy in Japan and to map out commonalities and differences between features of foreign language literacy in Japan and in other countries. The FLL N-SIG also aims to foster and network study groups and local grassroots linkups with teachers in other countries in order to learn about their situations and needs, and to create greater understanding and mutual cooperation between teachers in different countries and situations.

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Guessing Word Meaning from Context: Should We Encourage It?

David Dycus
Aichi Shukutoku University

Of all the reading strategies commonly recognized today in both L1 and L2 reading, arguably the most widely studied and encouraged is the guessing of the meaning of unknown words from context (hereafter referred to as the "guessing strategy"). It has a long history of research relative to L1 reading in English (Johnson and Bauman, 1984, cite studies on it from the 1940's, for example), with the great majority of studies demonstrating its value. Justification for applying it to L2 reading has come from cognitive science models of reading and schema theory, which are now widely accepted in ESL/EFL circles (see Jannuzi, this issue, for a discussion of schema theory and reading). This is especially true of models that emphasize top-down processing, with Goodman's (1967) famous characterization of "reading as a psycholinguistic guessing game" as probably the most influential.

The numerous studies which indicate that the strategy is effective provide validation for a strategy that is in itself intuitively appealing and appears to offer many advantages over laborious, time-consuming, methodical instruction in vocabulary and collocation. Another claim in support of the guessing strategy is that it involves generalizable skills of interpreting surrounding text, predicting, and testing predictions while reading, which enhance reading skills as a whole (Coady and Nation, 1988; Liu and Nation, 1985). In addition, guessing has been advocated instead of dictionary use because stopping to use a dictionary interrupts the flow of reading (Brown, 1972).

However, there is also a growing body of research that brings into question the value of encouraging the guessing strategy with L2 learners which, in turn, has implications for L2 reading instruction and for the psycholinguistic approach to reading. Since the guessing strategy is so widely encouraged, it is important to take evidence against it into consideration. Therefore, this essay centers on the question: Should we encourage adult L2 readers to use the guessing strategy?

Justification for the guessing strategy

The fact that the guessing strategy is often encouraged is not surprising considering the enormous number of words in the English language, the size of the average adult's working vocabulary, and the number of words one needs to know to recognize a reasonably high percentage of words on the average written page. Webster's Third New International Dictionary, for example, contains 460,000 words, and this number does not include plural forms of nouns, different present and past tenses of verbs, neologisms, and some technical terms (Denning and Leben, 1995, p. 3). Of course, the average person's actual vocabulary (both passive and active) is much smaller, but still considerable. Although estimates of the size of the working vocabulary of the average English-speaker vary widely, commonly accepted figures hover around 20,000 words (Nation, 1990, p. 11). Word frequency counts indicate that this number is more than sufficient for understanding the vocabulary of most non-technical texts, although estimates again vary. According to one, for example, the 25 most common words account for one-third of the words on a page; 135 words takes one up to 50%. After that, the number of words needed increases in lognormal distribution. So, while it takes 2500 words to cover 78% of the page, vocabulary size has to be doubled to 5000 to reach 86%, and doubled again to 10,000 to cover 92% of the text. One would need to

know another 200,000 to cover the low frequency words that make up the remaining 8% (Diller 1978). However, Nation's (1990, p. 16) claim that the 2000 most frequently occurring words account for 87% of the average text, and that 2800 will account for 95%, is widely accepted today.

Regardless of the exact size of a native speaker's vocabulary, it is clear that the average second or foreign language learner faces a major challenge in trying to match it. Therefore, it is not surprising that the main reason given for encouraging use of the guessing strategy is the perception that it is the only reasonable way for L2 learners to learn enough words to form suitably large active and passive vocabularies.

Support also comes from experimental word recognition studies with L1 subjects, which have consistently shown that context plays a role in the identification of words in text (Gough, 1984; Underhill and Batt, 1996). Studies of context effects have established, among other things, that words are recognized better in context than out of context, and that simple word association enhances word recognition. For example, experiments show that lexical decision latency for a word is significantly reduced if it is preceded by a semantically related word (such as the word "wife" being displayed, then followed by "husband"). Appropriate sentential context has also been shown to improve the speed of lexical decision. Such results and their implications have been used to support the use of the guessing strategy for L2 readers.

Yes, but is it reading?

According to Gough (1984) we need to be cautious in interpreting the results of such experimental studies. While acknowledging that semantic priming (word association, etc.) is an established context effect that supports a top-down view of processing, he points out that semantically related words rarely occur together in such a way in authentic texts, casting doubt on the applicability of these findings to true reading. He also grants that the influence of sentential context on word identification and the guessability of word meanings is also firmly established, which implies that reading is a top-down process because, if it were bottom-up, words would have to be recognized before contextual factors could come in to play. However, while context has an effect on word recognition, Gough points out that the effect is not at all constant. Studies show "larger effects with younger and poorer readers than with older and better ones" (Gough, 1984, p. 245), possibly because poor readers, because of deficiencies in language ability, resort to context as a way to compensate for problems in recognizing words.

Finally, he points out that the context used in the studies he surveyed does not correspond well with real-world reading conditions at all. In these studies, target words were always nouns in the final position in a sentence, making them highly predictable. In addition, nouns make up only a small part of all content words, and content words themselves only make up only about half of the words in a running text. He concludes that context may play almost no role at all in *skilled* reading, which he concludes is probably a bottom-up, language driven process most of the time (Gough, 1984).

Just what is context in real reading?

In challenging seemingly hard and fast findings, Gough forces us to consider the question of exactly what context is. Clearly, defining it is not as easy as it may seem. At a basic level, it can be seen as information. Information, in turn, is that which reduces uncertainty. In reading, context can be defined as information that reduces uncertainty about the elements of a text, their meanings, and the meaning of the text as a whole.

Traditionally, context (as well as meaning) was seen as a given, existing fully and completely in any properly written text, and the key to using it was linguistic knowledge. Today's cognitive theories claim this view places too much emphasis on linear, bottom-up processing. In response, various definitions of context

have been proposed that include language knowledge but emphasize the role played by high-level knowledge sources and personal experiences. Still, the commonly used general distinction between *local context* (provided by intrasentential and sentential information) or *global context* (provided by intersetential to discourse level information and world knowledge) is useful to this discussion, especially regarding the guessing strategy and L2 readers. As will be shown below, successful use of the guessing strategy often depends on which of these contexts is available and how it is used, if at all.

Context as a reader construct

Of the many theoretical descriptions of the elements and nature of context, Bialystok's (1983; cited in Barnett, 1989) has important implications for any discussion of context and the guessing strategy. She proposes that context exists **in relation and proportion to** the reader's *implicit knowledge* (intuitive and unanalyzed knowledge of the L2), *other knowledge* (knowledge of other languages and world knowledge), and *context* (linguistic and physical aspects (in this case, of a text) which provide clues to meaning). From this perspective, context is not an absolute presence in a text, but is instead *created* by the reader, and is therefore influenced by the reader's linguistic and world knowledge. The implications of this constructivist view of context will be returned to later.

L2 studies: Second-guessing guessing

The number of studies indicating the value of the guessing strategy is huge. Still, it is important to note that the vast majority are of **L1** readers, and the subjects are often children, not adults. Although it is tempting to make generalization from these studies to L2 reading, there is no reason to simply assume that the results automatically apply to adult L2 readers (i.e. Coady, 1996), as a growing of body of L2 reading research points out. For example, Bensoussan and Laufer (1984) found that their subjects could successfully guess only 25% of the unknown words in a text used in their study. Haynes' (1984) subjects did not do well using the guessing strategy either, and Schatz and Baldwin (1986) got such poor results in their own study that they concluded that the guessing strategy is so unproductive that it should not be taught at all. Clearly, something different is happening with L2 readers.

Factors affecting L2 readers' use of the guessing strategy

More and more studies show that a key factor affecting L2 readers' ability to make use of context is vocabulary knowledge. Laufer's (1996, p. 20-22) summary of L2 research on this topic provides some interesting conclusions regarding the importance of vocabulary in reading comprehension and strategy use:

- L2 learners tend to rely heavily on words as landmarks of meaning in text, less so on background knowledge, and to virtually ignore syntax.
- Vocabulary knowledge has been consistently shown to be more strongly related to reading comprehension than other components of reading.
- Even if a reader has and uses good metacognitive strategies in L1, they will not be of use in the L2 until the reader develops a solid language base.

To this list, we can add points from Barnett's (1988) discussion of research on the guessing strategy:

- Usable context varies from rich to poor, and is affected by the proportion of known to unknown words.
- Readers with larger active vocabularies can use available context better than those with smaller vocabularies.
- Beginning readers and advanced readers have been shown to use guessing strategies

more than middle level readers.

These findings have important some implications. First, they support Bialystock's proposition that context is created by the L2 reader in proportion to preexisting knowledge, and show that vocabulary is an important part of that knowledge. Second, they make it clear that a critical level of vocabulary and general language mastery is essential, not only for successful use of the guessing strategy, but also for the transfer of L1 strategies to L2 reading (Laufer, 1996). Third, the seemingly paradoxical fact that low- and high-level L2 readers use the guessing strategy more than middle-level readers is, in fact, another indication that level of linguistic development plays an important part in guessing. All of these points have direct implications for L2 reading instruction.

The threshold vocabulary

We have seen that an insufficient vocabulary can easily prevent the L2 reader from constructing enough context to guess unknown words, regardless of how much effort is expended in top-down processing strategies, and that this deficit can prevent L1 strategies from being transferred to L2 reading. An important question, then, is how many words the L2 reader needs to automatically recognize to reach the threshold level. Laufer (1996, p. 23-24), using results from her own studies, concludes that transfer of L1 strategies to L2 reading occurs at about the 3000 word family[1] level, which translates to roughly 5000 lexical items.

The "beginner's paradox"

Beginning readers and advanced readers have been shown to use the guessing strategy more than readers in the middle levels (Barnett, 1988). This is probably because beginners don't know much language and have to guess. Advanced readers are likely to guess for the opposite reason; they know enough L2 vocabulary to successfully apply the strategy to unknown words. This levels effect presents us with Coady's (1996) "beginners paradox." Extensive reading is commonly proposed as a way for L2 readers to expand their vocabulary. However, as we have seen, readers who don't know enough words can't read well or guess well. The paradox, then, is how can they learn enough words through reading when they don't know enough words to read well?

A big part of the answer to the paradox is methodical instruction in vocabulary, but this has been in disfavor for many years. It is claimed that directly teaching the large number of words needed for fluent reading is too time-consuming. Extensive reading (which involves intensive use of the guessing strategy) has been strongly advocated as the only reasonable means of building a suitably large vocabulary (Krashen, 1989). But clearly, the beginner's paradox brings this into question, as does the fact that claims for the effectiveness of extensive reading are largely based on results of L1 studies of children which, as we have seen, do not necessarily apply to adult L2 readers. This is not to say that extensive reading has no value in helping readers learn new words. Indeed, with proper attention to materials and assessment methods, learners can benefit very much from extensive reading (Coady, 1996). Still, it may not be nearly as useful for vocabulary learning as we have been led to believe.

Should we teach the guessing strategy?

This discussion has led us back to the question of whether or not we should teach and encourage L2 readers to use the guessing strategy. The answer is "Yes," but not at all times, not with all learners, not with all contexts, and certainly not as the main means of learning vocabulary. We have seen that readers use the strategy for different reasons and in different ways, partly because differences in levels of vocabulary knowledge affect their ability, need

[1] A word family includes all the derivations of a word (i.e. 'live, lived, life, living').

and willingness to construct context. This implies that we need to be selective about who we encourage to use the strategy, and that in the early stages extensive language learning should not be expected to take place *through* reading. In Eskey's (1988) words, the emphasis would be on "learning to read" as opposed to "reading to learn." It also indicates we need to learn much more about how readers make the transition from the intermediate level to the advanced level, why they are hesitant to guess, and when and why that hesitancy declines.

We have also seen that a vocabulary threshold of about 3000 word families or 5000 words is essential to effectively transfer L1 strategies to L2 reading. Indeed, a large sight vocabulary has been shown to enhance guessing form context (Laufer, 1996). Clearly, this evidence supports active teaching of vocabulary. Although direct vocabulary teaching has been out of favor recently, there is definitely reason to reassess arguments against it and to look for effective ways to balance vocabulary learning through direct instruction and incidental exposure.

Finally, it is important to remember that not all contexts are equal. Haynes (1984) found that guessing which only required reference to immediate sentence context was more effective than guessing which depended on textual elements farther away from the target word. In other words, guessing using local context is superior to guessing using global context. Because of this, she believes we should only encourage guessing if clues are in the immediate context, but that we should also teach when *not* to guess. Accordingly, if guessing requires global context, the guessing strategy should be abandoned and the dictionary or other resource should be used instead.

Conclusion

In this essay I have questioned the usefulness of the strategy of guessing word meaning from context with L2 readers. There is ample evidence in support of its effectiveness in L1 reading, especially with children, but research and experience show that these findings do not apply well to adult L2 readers.

Because there is so much written in support of the guessing strategy, I have focussed mostly on evidence against it to present my case, and much of it supports the importance of bottom-up processing. I do not wish to imply that top-down factors are unimportant. Indeed, background knowledge and schema activation can play an important part in the guessing strategy (Barnett, 1989). Still, top-down strategies can also lead readers to ignore words, and improper use of a schema or of background knowledge can lead readers to wrong conclusions about context and word meaning (Laufer, 1996). All things considered, the case for direct vocabulary teaching and against the guessing strategy is strong, at least for low- and intermediate level L2 readers.

Some guessing may be useful to teach because it encourages readers to make and test predictions, which is a useful generalized reading skill (Liu and Nation, 1985). But the evidence discussed above dictates a *selective* approach, by the reader and the teacher. Instruction should include training in what contexts provide the best opportunities for successful guessing, and must avoid urging use of the guessing strategy in all cases where readers encounter unknown words. Otherwise, guessing can easily become a strategy for frustration and demotivation instead of for improved reading and learning.

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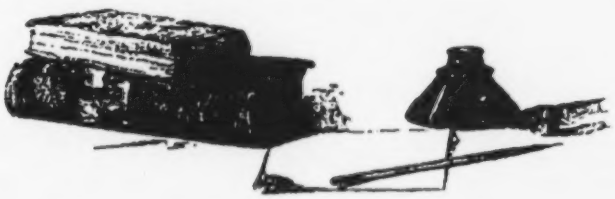

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Key Concepts in FL Literacy: Schema Theory

Charles Jannuzi
Fukui University

Schema theory (or actually theories) is an important area of inquiry that must certainly be added to ELT's growing catalogue of key concepts. It should be emphasized from the very beginning of this brief discussion that, however we define it, a schema is NOT something that is real in the sense that neuroscientists can or will ever literally put their finger on it. It is basically an empirically unverifiable object, like a myriad of other things that we talk about in education, linguistics and ELT all the time: IQ, linguistic competence, the Language Acquisition Device (LAD), and so on. Still, however questionable the existence or actual nature of the thing behind the concept is, the impact schema theory has had on language teaching is very real. Therefore, as classroom teachers we should be asking ourselves, "Is schema theory operationally useful in my teaching? Does it help me to teach so my students learn a foreign language?" In other words, just what is the pragmatic value of this well-known theory? If valuable, just how so?

Definitions

Keeping also in mind that a definition of something is not the thing itself, let us proceed with some attempts to define a schema[2]. Cook (1997) defines the concept as "a mental representation of a typical instance" which helps people to make sense of the world more quickly because "people understand new experiences by activating relevant schemas in their mind" (p. 86). Thus, according to the theory, we can understand a new situation or a new set of raw data (to include linguistic input, oral, written, or multimedia/ hypertextual) before all of that data has been received via bottom-up processing by matching parts to known whole types. That is, unless of course we have insufficient schemata for application or are misapplying the ones we do have, in which case we are more likely to misperceive and misunderstand something in a top-down way. Isn't this what happens when we say, "My mind seems to be playing tricks on me," or "It was right under my nose, but I never saw it." In the case of linguistic processing required in everyday communication, we often end up apologizing because we misheard or misread something: "I'm sorry, I thought you said..." or "I thought what I read was..." These are also examples of the influence of schemata on language processing and memory.

The earlier and more influential source texts for the extension and application of schema theory to Foreign Language Literacy (FLL) go back to Goodman (1967), who posited that L1 reading was a "psycholinguistic guessing game," Widdowson (1983), and Carrell and Eisterhold (1983, 1984). More or less, because of the impact and influence of these and follow-on works, schema theory and top-down approaches have been very much a part of mainstream ELT, perhaps especially noticeable in TEFL approaches to listening and reading.

Types of schema

In literacy and ELT it is often said that there are two types of schema: formal and content. Formal schemata are described as abstract, encoded, internalized, coherent patterns of meta-linguistic, discoursal, and textual organization (e.g., rhetorical patterns, story grammar, narrative scripts) that guide expectations in our attempts to understand a meaningful piece of language. Content schemata are less abstract and must presumably

[2] A variety of plural forms for *schema* are used, including *schemata*, *schemas*, and *schemes*.

be about the physical world of discernible objects and actions[3].

An interesting personal example of the effect of formal schemata for me is televison news. Partly because of the way it is presented, I find the TV news from Japan often harder at first to grasp for gist than I do broadcasts from Germany, despite the fact that I know much more Japanese than I do German, because German news programs are structured more like American news programs with which I am familiar.

Still, not all of the difficulty inunderstanding the news is attributable to how the stories are put together and flow out of the TV. Also different are the things actually depicted in the news, which illustrates as well the importance of content schemata. In terms of the TV news example, I would assert that it is most definitely the case that the subject matter of German TV news is also much more like my native culture's (America) than that of my current resident culture (Japan).

Cultural influences on schemata

Some schemata are said to be culturally specific; presumably such cultural schemata could be either of the formal or content type. For example, much has been made of the way different cultures organize language into meaningful written texts and how members of these cultures then approach reading, interpreting, and using these texts. Or to give a very down-to-earth, everyday example, having lived in Japan for eight years, I can assure you that the typical "script" (a type of content schema) for ordering a meal in a restaurant is different than it is in the USA; I still sometimes have trouble with the question where I am asked if I want the beverage I have ordered with or after the meal. Obviously, content schemata could be specific to a culture, as culture does help to determine our life experiences and how we make meaning of them. What would it mean to teach the word "cheese" in an EFL class where no such food existed? Could the word and the concept it represents mean the same thing to someone who has never eaten it? Or, imagine teaching the words to describe the four seasons of a temperate climate to someone who lives in a tropical desert.

A new type of schema: Abstract

Breaking from the established formal-content schemata distinction, Oller (1995) argues for making a three-part distinction amongst schemata: abstract, formal, and content. Using terms from Peircean logic, he associates each type of schemata with a particular kind of inference: deduction, induction, and abduction[4], respectively. Although acknowledging that formal (derived from inductive type reasoning) and content (stemming from abductive type reasoning) schemata are well known in applied linguistics literature, he argues that the relatively unknown abstract type are logically necessary for the theory to be complete. He writes:

> Abstract schemata must constitute a third class, and unlike the other two this class of schemata has not been recognized previously in schema theory as a distinct category (unless grammars themselves are taken to be schemata). Abstract schemata carry the inductive integration to the completely general (abstract, non-material, non-syntacticized) level of pure symbols (in Peirce's sense of the term 'symbol'). Such a schema is necessary, for instance, if we are to draw inferences from representations that are independent of any particular case or any finite number of actual cases in the material world. For instance, if hotels are businesses that aim to make a profit they must generally charge more for their

[3] It should be noted, that post-modern epistemologies problematize and even collapse all such distinctions.

[4] As used by Oller, *abduction* refers to perceptual inferencing.

> services than those services cost the owners. Thus, deductive inferences give us a great deal of information about all possible hotels that could not be acquired by merely examining or auditing the records of however many individual cases we might gain access to by whatever methods might be applied. (pp. 286-287)

One immediate challenge for classroom teaching here is to apply the concept of abstract schemata and deductive reasoning to our own pedagogical procedures and decision making. The numerous empirical/quantitative studies that Applied Linguistics provides and the inductive reasoning underlying them, without benefit of deductive reasoning, may yield nothing more than rather empty formalisms about teaching. More than any other type, the truly powerful, operable schemata telling us how to proceed in the classroom come more from abstraction and deductive reasoning consistent with material reality and our own actual experiences.

Oller himself is not afraid to draw implications for literacy and language learning when he writes:

> Hence in relative degrees of theoretical power, the connectedness afforded by deduction, is higher than any afforded by induction, which in turn is higher than any afforded by abduction. As a result, some interesting hypotheses about language acquisition and use, and especially about discourse processing can be formulated. The theory predicts, for instance, that formal schemata will, other things being equal, have greater power than content schemata in facilitating discourse comprehension and hence communication, language acquisition, etc. Also, other things being equal, abstract schemata, involving symbols and their definitions, will be more helpful still. (pp. 287-288)

Interestingly, and of special note for teachers of literacy and ELT, Oller's three-part schema theory is essentially an interactive one, involving top-down and bottom-up processing: "it comes out there in a completely general way that all comprehension and learning must be grounded ultimately in bottom-up processing of perceptual representations linked to actual material facts" (p. 299). It is still too early tell just what sort of impact Oller's arguments will have on ELT and literacy practice, but any language teaching professional who reads the article will be forced to revise the very idea of what schemata might be and how they affect language processing and learning.

Schemata and the top-down vs. bottom-up processing debate

Oller's work adds more ammunition to the long-running debate about whether reading basically involves top-down or bottom-up processing. Top-down approaches to teaching reading and text comprehension are undoubtedly very popular in ELT. In these approaches to reading and listening, there is an emphasis on what a language user/learner psychologically brings to a given communicative situation. This prior knowledge that the individual systematizes and internalizes is equated with schemata. One reason for the almost unexamined faith in top-down approaches might be that bottom-up approaches are associated with largely discredited behaviorism and its LT analog, the audio-lingual approach. It could also be argued that many of the psycholinguistic details of bottom-up accounts of language processing have never been well understood by actual classroom practitioners. But criticism of the emphasis on top-down processing, such as Paran's (1996) compelling critique of the deleterious effects of communicative language teaching's over-emphasis on it, indicate that the tide may be turning.

Bottom-up approaches to FLT and FLL might minimize the importance of activating schemata because with these approaches comprehension and learning from text are for the most part viewed as being driven by the proper perception and processing of text-based clues (either written or spoken, e.g.,

units of perceived sound, letters/letter combinations, syllables/word parts, whole sight words, etc.). Remember that with a top-down view of comprehension, the key to how understanding is possible is with the emphasis on the individual language user's/learner's background knowledge (of the target language, of the target language's culture or cultures, of the world) and their ability to direct these cognitive resources toward the text so as to reconstruct the message (re-write it, if you will, into working and short-term memories). The whole process of comprehending a reading or listening text requires top-down processing in order to meet and make sense of incoming data and to fill in where the bottom-up information is incomplete or garbled.

Interactive models

Of course, numerous compromise models have been offered in order to overcome the simple dichotomy of bottom-up vs. top-down; these are versions of the very appealing interactive model.[5] Interactive theories attempt to reconcile and combine the apparent strengths of the two opposing views (top-down vs. bottom-up, that is) while eliminating the weaknesses of both. An interactive model of text processing and comprehension holds that we process information in both ways simultaneously—from the top down and the bottom up. One danger here is that we make a "Rube Goldberg" model for the sake of theory when what actually need to proceed in the classroom is more like Occam's Razor instead.

In current ELT methodology what is often seen as one version of the mainstream top-down models (but which is not specific to ELT) might actually be more accurately called a "compensatory, interactive model" (first advanced as a complete model by Stanovich, 1980). Basically what "compensatory, interactive" means is that top-down cognition (e.g., active, outwardly directed use of pragmatic expectations and semantic knowledge toward the text) is used to fill in the gaps that FL learners inevitably experience as they incompletely and erroneously process L2 text. This in theory is possible because the interactive processing of parallel codes (e.g., phonological/orthographic, lexical, syntactical, semantic, pragmatic) supposedly allows these different levels to compensate for loss of information at any one level. So, according to advocates of this theory, teachers are doing the right thing by placing an emphasis on a more efficient use of top-down skills (e.g., pre-reading or pre-listening activities to call up prior knowledge, skimming, reading for gist, etc.) in order to boost students' performance with the bottom-up skills (e.g., decoding letter for sounds or recognizing sounds as parts of meaningful chun ks of language).

None of the above!

Unfortunately, as you might expect if you are a classroom teacher used to trying to make your way through the thicket of applied and pure research, there are problems even with this seemingly reasonable compensatory, interactive model. An outstanding example of pure (not applied) research that certainly complicates and weakens—if not entirely undercuts—both the top-down and the compensatory, interactive models can be found in Townsend and Bever (1991), who "test and disprove the common assumption that pragmatic probability facilitates the processing of lower linguistic levels" (p. 49). In their research, what the application of pragmatic considerations in comprehension tasks seems to do is actually overwhelm working memory and crowd out bottom-up processes altogether. There is no smooth, complete, complementary synthesis of parallel processes to compensate for incomplete bottom-up pro-

[5]The interested reader who wants a complete but concise interactive model of text processing might see Rumelhart, 1994.

cessing. The implications for the language and literacy classrooms are enormous: encourage top-down processes in order to boost comprehension and we may distract our students from fluently processing the text.

This is not to say, however, that top-down approaches have no use whatsoever. It is my observation as a teacher that they are invaluable in getting students interested in and focused on a language learning or literacy task, and there is no denying that this is absolutely necessary for effective instruction. Managing a classroom discussion (for both language practice and for thinking while using the L2) would be impossible without such approaches. Moreover, in face-to-face encounters or when watching a movie or TV program, for example, not all the information crucial to understanding is locked up in the linguistic encoding. Schema theoretic approaches in the classroom may well boost comprehension (but so, too, does translation and interpretation into L1), but they may not boost linguistic processing the way we have been led to hope. In fact, they may well distract students from actually trying to fluently read or listen to the whole text.

Just Where Do Top Down and Bottom Up Meet?

While some of the above discussion may work to undercut the mainstream acceptance of top-down, schema-theoretic approaches to FLT and FL literacy, I would argue that there still is room for them in the classroom. In current discussions of ELT methodology, there is much talk of lexical approaches. Maybe it is at the level of words and lexical phrases that meaning can be said to be perceived in both top-down and bottom-up fashions. A lexical approach can be said to be top-down in the sense that a person's prior word, conceptual, and world knowledge come into use when attention is directed toward a text and it is processed with comprehension. However, it could also be viewed as bottom-up in the sense that a word is the smallest unit of meaning in a text to occur on its own. In other words, the processing and automatic recognition of separate lexical items might act as a bridge between the lower levels of processing (e.g., phonemes/graphemes, syllables, major and minor spelling patterns, sight words) and the upper ones (e.g., syntax, text semantics, pragmatic considerations). In actual classroom practice, teachers who want to reconsider what improved vocabulary instruction might include would do well to heed Paran's (1996) call for activities as seemingly mundane, passe, and uncommunicative as timed word recognition exercises, a classic example of what has been called "unenlightened" bottom-up language practice. Still, they need not be uncommunicative if situated properly in a communicative classroom environment.

Conclusion

Much of the foregoing discussion might have seemed abstract—abstracted from the reality of any classroom. My goal was to take an abstract concept— one that many teachers make assumptions about, assumptions which have huge implications for the classroom—and examine it more closely in order to see the implications, problems and promise that it holds. My point is that while some abstraction belongs in the classroom, the theories and concepts that are out there in the world of academia do not simply apply to our classrooms because applied linguists say they should or do.

As teachers we really do have to work out such theories and concepts for ourselves. We are the all important connection that allows theories and concepts to serve a pragmatic purpose: improved instruction. I hope that this brief article helps you to reconsider and revise the place of schema theory in your teaching, and I look forward to your comments and criticisms—most specifically in

regards to how you have found schema the ory to apply to your own classroom teaching.

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[Japanese and English Rhetorical Strategies: A Contrastive Analysis]

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English Abstract

This presentation examines English and Japanese "preferred" rhetorical strategies as identified by Hinds, Takemata, Mulvey, Ricento and Yutani, among others. Three Japanese strategies will be discussed: the "return to baseline theme," the "kishoutenketsu" approach, and the "tempura" or "quasi inductive" approach. These rhetorical tendencies will be compared to what is known as the American academic English model, though it should be noted here that very little difference exists between written British and written American academic English. (See, for instance, David Crystal's discussion of this subject in *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* on pages 300 and 311.)

To summarize my analysis of the three Japanese strategies: "Return to baseline theme" describes a rhetorical tendency whereby the author introduces an opinion early on which is repeated throughout but never discussed. Instead of explaining or defending this opinion, such an author moves along to discuss seemingly disconnected issues, often arguing these tangently related points at great length. Then, in the midst of this discussion on a seemingly almost unrelated point, the author reintroduces the earlier stated main topic, often merely repeating verbatim the prior sentence(s). Little attempt is made to connect the reintroduced topic to the discussion surrounding it.

With the "kishoutenketsu" approach, the author introduces a topic immediately, which is then discussed in the "shou" section of the essay. However, in the "ten" section, a new topic is introduced, one which need have only an implied connection to the preceding topic. Then, in the final or "ketsu" section, the author introduces yet another opinion or topic, which again need not have any connection to what preceded it.

In the "tempura" or inductive strategy, the author supplies facts, examples and support throughout the beginning and middle sections of the paper, though no opinion or controlling idea is mentioned. As the opinion being supported is undefined, the result is a somewhat disembodied feel to the development. The controlling idea is suddenly introduced in the last paragraph(s).

From research and my own experience, the above strategies are heavily utilized by Japanese ESL writers. The implications for language teachers should thus be clear: As these strategies differ markedly from standard Western usage, students using such strategies in their papers risk having their efforts mistaken for poor organization, lack of focus and inadequate development. (See studies by Ricento 1987 and Hinds 1987 for further discussion.) Of course, this is not the case: these essays do indeed possess a clear, concise method of organization. However, ESL teachers should be prepared to make the rhetorical differences between the native and target language as clear as possible to their students.

英文による小論文の構成方法について

バーン　モルヴィ　　福井大学

始めに:

Takemata (1976), Yutani (1977), Hinds (1983, 1990), Kobayashi (1984)の対照分析によると、日本人は優れた論文の構成方法について、欧米人と全然違う発想を持っています。又、Ricento (1991), Hinds (1983, 1984), Mulvey (1992)の論文によると、この結果、文法を正確に書いても、日本人の筆者は欧米人の読者に誤解される可能性が多いです。自国の構成方法に期待しているので、読者は筆者が違った構成方法を使うと、混乱させられる可能性があります。なお、筆者は読者の構成方法に対する期待に反して書いたら、読者に悪い印象を及ぼして、説得できません。

この理由で、日本の高校生と大学生はこの相違点を学ぶべきだと思いますが、私のとったアンケート調査の結果によると、大多数の福井大学の入学生・８０％以上は学校でこの相違点を学習したことがなく、他のアンケート調査の結果によると、高校の先生の間にもこの違いをはっきり理解していない人がいます。この結果、生徒はこの相違点について何もを学べなくて、大学生であっても英語の論文でコミュニケーションできません。

本研究は日本的発想による作文と欧米人の発想による英作文の構成方法を比較対照する予定ですが、色々構成方法がありますので、この研究では学校教育における小論文の構成だけ比較対照します。この研究では相違点を伝えて、その結果を分析しますが、日本語による作文を批判するつもりはありません。昔から習慣や文化や考え方が違うので、国により作文構成方法も違いますが、違うのも必ずしも悪いものではないと思います。けれども、国際化の時代には外国人とコミュニケーションするにはその国の作文方法で書くほうがもっと良いと思います。私が日本とアメリカの大学で英米文学と英作文を教えた七年間の経験によれば、正確な作文方法で書ける学生や研究者のほうが大学で単位や良い成績を簡単に取れることを認識しました。なぜなら彼らの論文は説得力があり、欧米の読者にとってより簡単に理解できるからです。

English and Japanese-English Writing Styles -- an Overview:

欧米人の言語学者、例えばAxelrod (1988)、Trimmer (1992)、D'Angelo (1974)、Kaplan (1966)、Halliday (1976)によると、欧米人は一般に意見をはっきり述べる傾向があるので、英作文として、正確な文体は筆者の主張よりもっと重要です。西洋の読者には、主張を説明し固める

ためにスタイル＝「方法」は一番重要です。もし見事に説明していて、説得力があれば、おかしい意見を述べていても、このような筆者は人に良く思われます。例えば、私が大学生の時、先生と私の論文の意見が全然合わなくても、先生が私のエッセイ構成が気に入れば、合格できました。先生と私の論文の意見が合っても、構成が良くないと思われたら、悪い成績でした。

正確な英作文構成方法として、序論で主張「判断」を伝えて、論文の展開でこの意見を例証や引用や言い換えで説明します。筆者は常に批判されることを念頭においているので、この例証や引用で自分の主張を固めます。この固める方法はとても重要です。主張を序論で伝えると、読者は筆者の書く能力を簡単に判断できます。もし読者に主張を曲げていると思われたら、このような論文は説得力がないと見なされます。もしずっと結論の終わりまで本論問題についての判断だけ通さなかったら、このような論文も説得力がないと見なされます。結論の要約やまとめまでに、作家は見事な構成スタイルで読者を感動させなければなりません。もし読者を説得できなかったら、良い意見でも、劣った文と見なされます。

日本人は意見を直接に述べようとしない傾向があるので、欧米人の読者にとって、小論文を通して筆者の主張を理解するのは難しいことがあります。有名な言語学者のYutaniは論文で「日本の作文構成は天ぷらのような物です」と書いています。Yutaniよると、日本の作文構成方法は、主張を間接的に設定しているので、論文の展開は天ぷらの衣のようで、判断は天ぷらのえびのようです。理解するためには読者が論文の展開＝「衣」の中で作家の主張や判断＝「えび」を探さなければなりません。

もちろん、日本語作文の中には色々な構成の方法の種類、例えば、「起承転結」などがありますが、TakemataやKobayashiの論文によると、どんな方法においても、筆者は文の結論にだけ主張を述べるか主張をあまりはっきり述べない傾向があります。筆者はこの構成方法では序論で導入の話題を提起して、その背景や状況を記述します。このような論文の中央段落で、この問題を展開して、適用できる事柄について例証や引用や図表で説明します。けれども、この部分に新しく、無関係な問題を提起する傾向もあります。最後に、結論で筆者は本論話題を伝えて、判断します。けれども、論文で幾つかの無関係な問題を提起していて、最後の文に主張を書くと、西洋の読者には統一を欠いていて、説得力がないと思われます。

Japanese English Composition -- Three Common Organizational Errors:

これから三つの例をあげて、分析するつもりです。第一は松田かずみがTokyo Journalに掲載した英語で書いた記事です。第二、第三は朝日新聞天声人語の記事ですが、両方ともは英語に翻訳し

Asahi Evening Newsに掲載されたものです。又、これらはHinds (1983, 1990)の英語で書いた論文でも分析されたものです。

例第一号「Tokyo Journal -- July, 1996」:

KANJI WITHOUT TEARS

If the Japanese government phases out kanji, foreigners learning Japanese and young Japanese students will applaud with delight.

Many foreigners consider kanji to be inefficient. To be sure, it is a huge language barrier. The rote-learning aspect of it is also a waste of time for students. Japan hasn't made any essential changes to the use of kanji since importing it from China.

The unique writing system consists of ideograms (*kanji*) and two phonetic syllabaries (*hiragana* and *katakana*). However, in its contacts with the West, particularly since the Meiji Era, Japan has had to create new words that represent abstract concepts or imported things. While some foreign words were written in katakana, new kanji idioms were also created. These relatively new kanji idioms have become the basis for Japanese abstract thought. For example, in one newspaper editorial on a fairly simple topic, there were 330 kanji. In another article that addressed an international and political issue, there were 634 kanji. If these articles were transcribed into hiragana or katakana, the average Japanese would have extreme difficulties in reading and understanding the content.

A difficult concept can be easily expressed by using characters. By looking at the characters, readers can easily derive the meaning. Even school children can generally decipher the meaning of a political term such as Most Favored Nation (as in MFN trade status). But, in fact, this is one of the weaknesses of Japan's kanji system. According to university research (Asahi Shinbun, May 6, 1996), a considerable number of adults misinterpret the meaning of some kanji idioms. Moreover, it was found that many characters, if combined with another, lack a definite meaning.

If the Japanese government abolishes kanji, and thereby rote-learning, will the intellectual standards and writing ability of the Japanese rise as a result? And, will Japan thus become a creative nation?

I think the answer can only be no.

I am convinced that Japanese intellectual standards will fall if we lose the tools with which to express abstract concepts. It is said that the intellectual and writing abilities of Japanese students are inferior to American students. This is a result of Japan's poor educational system. At least until the end of World War II, the aim of education was to mold children into quiet and obedient soldiers.

During the war, it was even dangerous to express one's opinions.

There is still little training or encouragement of articulate self-expression. In compulsory schools, the teacher to student ratio can be as high as one teacher to 45 students. Some senior high schools have far worse conditions. Moreover, most students receive sparse training in writing or debating, and entrance exam hell further constrains students' energies. Undoubtedly, there are some college students who don't know how to write an assignment.

Recently, more and more parents are sending their kids to international schools. Meanwhile, sales of serious literature are dropping. If Japanese teachers awakened student interest in literature, and encouraged self-expression in class, perhaps students would pick up and read serious literature. I don't think that kanji rote-learning has anything to do with Japanese being called imitators. If this were true, the Chinese would be called imitators. But I suppose Japan became adept at imitation because originality and creativity cost time and money, while imitation only requires intelligence. I don't think Japan is giving enough scholarships to excellent students and researchers.

These days, many Japanese researchers receive scholarships from

foreign countries and go abroad. There is no doubt that as a result of progress, there are a great deal of things to learn and study. Today, *joyokanji* and its idioms amount to about 20,000.

However, when one uses a word processor, one easily forgets how to write the characters. Now is the time for kanji reform, and with it, reform of Japan's educational system and curriculum. Also, the Japanese need to concentrate on learning more English. In daily life already, many English words are used (but with Japanized pronunciation), and English is the main language used in technical fields.

The Japanese need English more than ever in the future in order to express themselves precisely and freely. I say this to all Japanese students: Boys, be bilingual, up to the level that you understand an American newspaper.

Ricentoはこのような論文構成方法を「return to baseline theme」と呼びます―「Baseline」はこの場合は「本論問題」という意味になります。この構成では、筆者は本論問題を英作文と同じようにすぐに提起して、論文でこの論点を何回も繰り返し書きますが、論文の展開でこの提起した問題に対する主張をはっきり述べないし、固めないし、裏付けや証明もしてありません。その代わりに筆者は展開で本論問題に関する背景や状況を長たらしく記述します。又、本論問題の無関係なことを伝えて、分析する傾向もあります。筆者は無関係なことを伝えて、分析するので、本論問題をしばしば離れていると思われます。本論問題を離れたり、帰ったりしているので、「return to baseline」と呼ばれています。なお、欧米人の読者は、本論問題を離れて判断と要約が書いてないこういう論文は、統一を欠いていて、主張も説得力もないと見なします。

上の例証論文で、筆者は本論問題「should kanji be taught in school?」をすぐに提起して、でもこの問題についての判断「yes, but in a different way, with more of an emphasis on English reading and analytical skills]は最後にだけ書いています。論文の序論と中央の文章の段落で、筆者は色々論争の的になった議論について賛成論と反対論を分析していますが、この議論は本論問題と関連していません。・例えば第三と四段落の分析は漢字の賛成論と反対論についてですから関連していますが、第八と九と十段落に色々教育方法や文化の問題を分析していますが、どんな関係があるのでしょうか？・「日本人と中国人のどちらのほうがよりimitatorsでしょうか」の問題は本論問題と関係がないと思います。なお、時々関連している段落でも、矛盾している意見を述べていることがあるので、本当の主張をどう解釈できるでしょうか？・例えば、第四段落で「漢字を使った書き物はより理解しやすいか理解しにくいのか」どちらのほうが筆者の主張でしょうか？・判断がありませんので、西洋の読者は筆者も混乱していると見なします。

この論文構成方法は私が教えている日本人学生の間で一番人気がありますが、欧米人の読者を一番混乱させている構成方法かも知れません。なるほど、日本の作文には、問題の状況と背景をよく記述することが必要でしょうが、西洋の読者にとって、そのような説明は必要ではありませ

ん。判断すること判断の裏付けだけが重要です。もし筆者が始めに判断を述べて、中央段落で主張の説明と裏付けをして、結論まで一貫していたら、説得力のあるものになると思います。

例題二号「朝日新聞天声人語から」

HARMONY IN DRIVING

起　This columnist first learned to drive and obtained a driving license in New York City. At that time, what the driving instructor naggingly stressed was "harmony." He said that the knack of driving lay first in harmony, second in harmony, no third and fourth and fifth in harmony.

承　Ignoring the question of how to shift gears, he lectured, while on the road, on the importance of maintaining the minimum necessary distance between cars. There were times when this writer became sick and tired because he kept harping on the matter so much. It may be questionable whether American drivers actually place importance on "harmony," but at least that aged instructor kept insisting on it all the time.

転　The most frightening thing in the accident in the Nihonzaka Tunnel of the Tomei Expressway on July 11 was that there were about 170 vehicles within the tunnel and most of them burned. Why were there so many vehicles within the tunnel?

In order to run at a speed of 80 kilometers per hour within the tunnel, vehicles must keep a distance of 80 meters between each other. If the vehicles had been running at 80-meter intervals, the total of vehicles on the two lanes from the entrance to the site of the accident about 1.6 kilometers away should have been 40 at the most. Since the expressway was crowded that day, the speed may have been less than 80 kilometers per hour. Still, 170 vehicles are just too many.

First, there was disregard of the proper distance between vehicles. On expressways, there are cases of vehicles running at 100 kilometers an hour with only 10 or 20 meters between them. Even if a driver tries to maintain the proper distance between vehicles, other vehicles cut into the space in front of that driver, immediately destroying harmony. Drivers are aware of the danger of a collision and pile-up but keep on driving, comforting themselves with the thought, "It will be all right." The piling up of such disharmony is dangerous.

There was also the fact that warnings were ignored. Immediately after the accident occurred, the panel at the tunnel entrance lit up with the warning, "Fire Outbreak, Entry Banned." But it appears that a considerable number of cars entered the tunnel after the warning had been posted. Did they speed into hell, unable to apply breaks suddenly because the distance between vehicles was too small?

結　The preventative measures taken by the Japan Highway Public Corporation were grossly inadequate. Experts should be aware of what a lack of water for firefighting means in emergencies. They knew but closed their eyes to the fact. The psychology of "It will be all right" on the part of the drivers and the corporation caused this major accident.

Takemata (1976)とHinds (1983)はこのような構成方法を「起承転結」と呼びます。このような論文構成で、筆者は「起」部分で一般の議題を伝えて、「承」部分でこの議題を展開します。もし筆者はこの議題についての展開を結論までし続けたら、英作文構成方法と似ている構成ですが、「転」部分で筆者は新しい議題を設定しています。この新しく提起した問題が本論問題のようになって、結論まで展開し、説明されることがあります。最後に、結論でも筆者はしばしば新しい

問題を提起して、この新しく提起した問題と本論問題について何かを論じることがあります。無関係の議題を何回かに提起し、判断と要約は結論にだけ書いているので、西洋の読者にとって、このような構成方法は解釈しにくいです。

上の例証論文で、筆者は「起」部分でニューヨークの運転学校での経験を伝えて、「承」部分でこの経験を記述して、関連した意見を述べて、展開します。例えば、「There were times when this writer became sick and tired because he kept harping on the matter so much。」そして、「It may be questionable whether American drivers actually place importance on "harmony," but at least that aged instructor kept insisting on it all the time」と書いた文があります。けれども、「転」部分で筆者は新しい問題「日本坂トンネルでの交通事故について」を提起して、次の文の段落で展開します。なるほど、第五段落に「(dis)harmony」も書いてありますが、西洋の人が関連していると見なす範囲は日本人と比べると違いますから、その文を書くまでに、指示する対象は何もないので、統一を欠いている構成と見なされます。又、結論でもう一つ無関係な問題「The Japan Highway Public Corporation's supposed complicity in the disaster by not providing sufficient water for firefighting purposes)を提起して、ここでだけ論じているので、全体は支離滅裂に見えます。　正確な英作文構成の観点から再び述べますと、筆者は一つの本論問題を選択し、論文の中央段落で展開するべきです。なお、この問題について主張＝「判断」は序論で書かなければなりません。この二つの規則を破っているので、面白い意見でも、西洋の読者に対して説得力がありません。もし筆者が一つの本論問題だけ提起して、展開したら、西洋の読者をもっと良く説得できます。

例証第三も朝日新聞天声人語から：

WHO ARE THE WAR DEAD?

Around this time 39 years ago, there were air raids in Japan almost daily. In April, Tokyo saw B29 bombings once every two days -- on April 1, 2, 4, 7, 12, 13, 15, and so forth. Tokyo, Osaka, Kobe and Nagoya were bombed and burned.

"In the flow of bombed-out river/A praying old woman turns into white wax and sinks." This is a poem by Sakae Fukuyama of Toyama City. The big bombings of Toyama City occurred before dawn on Aug. 2, 1945, only a few days before the end of the war. The city was razed, and about 3,000 citizens were burned to death.

Who are the "war dead"? Are the war dead only officers, soldiers, and civilian employees of the military who died fighting? It can't be so. In an all-out war, the home front turns into the battlefront and citizens are subjected to such fierce attacks that 100,000 people are robbed of their lives in one night.

There is no mistaking the fact that people killed in bombings, civilians killed in the Okinawa battle and people killed while being repatriated to Japan are all war dead. To engage in severe self-reflection concerning the fact that the lives of 800,000 civilians were sacrificed is the way to console the souls of the war dead.

That there were so many civilians killed by indiscriminate mass

bombings hints at the outcome of a future nuclear war. As pointed out by Shinjiro Tanaka, who says, "In a nuclear war, the people will definitely be abandoned," the number of civilians killed will be far greater than the number of officers and soldiers killed. Beyond that, there is the danger that they will be exterminated. The basic tragedy contained in modern war is the drastic increase in the number of civilians who will be killed.

If, for instance, the prime minister and all Cabinet members officially attended memorial services for the civilian war dead in Tokyo, Osaka, Okinawa, Hiroshima, and Nagasaki, we would welcome the move. We also feel that this is how it will be possible to deeply consider the meaning of war.

Why is the Liberal-Democratic Party now desperately trying to make official visits by Cabinet members to the Yasukuni Shrine in Tokyo constitutional? Why is the party trying to review the government policy to the effect that such visits may be unconstitutional? Those responsible for carrying out the war are also enshrined at Yasukuni Shrine.

このような構成方法はYutaniという言語学者にTempura Strategyと呼ばれています。Hinds (1990)の論文によると、この構成方法では、筆者は結論まで主張をほのめかすだけです。結論に至るまで、言い換えや例証や引用で筆者は何かについて説得していますが、本論問題を何も提起していないので、西洋の読者はしばしば全体の一貫性を理解できなくて、「この例証や引用がどう関連しているか」と考えます。状況や背景や判断は結論までありませんので、例証などを手当たり次第に展開していると見なされ、全体も支離滅裂の印象を与えます。

上の第三例で、筆者は日本の第二次世界大戦の経験を色々記述しています。 例証や引用で酷い経験をよく説明していますが、「筆者がなぜこのような説明しているか」という意図は第六段落までに分からないので、関係を理解できなくて、議論が手当たり次第に展開されていると考えられます。例えば、第五段落では「現代において、現代の軍備や技術で世界大戦のような戦争がもう一同起きたら、どんなような結果が起きるでしょうか」という問題を提起して、論じますが、前の段落では第二次世界大戦時文民損害等の酷い経験だけを論じています。第一段落から第五段落までで、筆者は「War is bad」というような話題をほのめかしていますが、筆者の意図や主張は提起していないので、読者は内容が手当たり次第に展開していると見なします。構成方法が分からないので、論文は支離滅裂な印象を与えて、説得力もないと思われます。なお、結論で判断したことがありますが、突然に伝えたこの主張は全体とどんなような関係があるのでしょうか？この関係を理解するため、西洋の読者は全体をもう一度読まなければならないかも知れません。その原因もあって、この論文は説得力がないのです。もし筆者が序論でも主張を伝えていたら、統一が取れ理解しやすくなり、西洋の読者をよく説得できます。

The Most Common Academic English Organizational Method -- An Overview:

これから、英作文教科書から正確な英作文構成方法の例を上げて、分析します。

例題四号「Writing Academic Englishから」

次の例題論文は

Metropolitan City has a reputation for being full of charm and scenic beauty. Because of this, visitors from around the world come to enjoy its famous theaters, museums, countless ethnic restaurants, and scenic wonders. However, although Metropolitan City seems like a paradise, it isn't, for the city has several serious problems: poor public transportation, congested streets, and expensive housing.

The first and most important problem is Metropolitan's inadequate public transportation system. Thousands of residents rely on the city's buses and streetcars to travel throughout this large city, but Metro Transportation System's daily schedules are totally unreliable. A bus or streetcar that should arrive at 7:45 A.M. may not arrive until eight o'clock or even later. Sometimes three buses or streetcars will arrive in bunches, one after the other. Moreover, it is not unusual for a bus driver or a street conductor to pass up groups of people anxiously waiting in the snow in freezing weather because he is behind schedule and wants to make up for lost time. Unfortunately, passengers become unhappy victims of the waiting game, causing them to be late for work or to miss important appointments. For instance, once I waited so long in below zero weather that I caught a bad cold and ended up in bed for a week. Then, on the day of my psychology final, the streetcar was thirty minutes late. In other words, in order to get to their destinations on time, people must allow for waiting time at the bus and streetcar stops.

The second serious problem is the extremely congested condition of the city streets. There are simply too many cars everywhere. Besides the heavy traffic caused by city residents, many commuters drive on the freeways and bridges leading into the city from the suburbs. This added traffic causes even greater traffic jams. To clear up the congested streets, city officials want city residents to leave their cars at home and use public transportation. They have pleaded with out-of-towners to use the transit systems coming into this huge metropolis. Howver, their pleas have fallen on deaf ears because residents know that the city's public transportation is poor; moreover, suburbanites like the convenience of driving, which gives them the freedom to come and go as they please.

The final problem is the lack of reasonable housing in Metro City. This is a fascinating city that offers an exciting lifestyle for young, ambitious business and professional people, as well as immigrants attracted by the many unskilled job opportunities. All of these would-be residents need affordable rentals like apartments, flats, and single-family houses. But, unfortunately, because there is a tremendous shortage of rental units, rents skyrocket, and so people leave the city. For example, Kathleen and Suzy's rent for a two-bedroom flat was recently raised from $750.00 to $1,000.00 per month, so Suzy moved to Vallejo, where she teaches. Kathleen has been looking for a studio apartment, and, so far, she has found that the rents range from $550.00 to $750.00 per month, depending on location.

In conclusion, Metropolitan City must improve its public transit system, clear up the massive traffic jams caused by slow-moving traffic in the downtown areas, and keep rentals down to affordable levels. In other words, Metropolitan City must improve its image, or it will soon become just another mediocre city due to the lack of administrative responsibility to solve these unfortunate problems.

良い英論文例題を選択するのは難しかったです。説得力のある英作文であるためには、正確な構成方法を使い、面白くて見事な描写や明確な説明を使ったり、適用できる例や引用も上げたりしなければなりません。これは日本的発想による作文と同じだと思います。言い換えると、構成

方法の他に文体・見事な言葉・明確な論理での説明なども重要ですが、そのような完全な論文は普通長すぎて、難しい言葉を使っているので、短い論文には向きません。上の例題論文はアメリカに来た移民のため英作文構成方法の教科書から上げた例ですから、使った言葉などはネイティブスピーカーにちょっと単純すぎると思えるかもしれませんが、正確な英作文構成方法としては良い例だと思います。

上の例証論文で、筆者は序論の最初に導入の話題「Metropolitan City」を提起していて、背景や状況を伝えていますが、序論の終わりに明確な本論主張「the three serious problems of Metropolitan City」を設定します。この序論の最後に主張を伝えている文は英語で「thesis statement」と呼びます。正確な英作文方法では、この主張を伝えている文は序論に書かなければなりません。次の段落ではこのthesis statement「主張」についてだけ分析しながら展開し、論じることができます。主張の部分で述べたことを展開する時一つの段落で一つのことを取り上げ分析、展開します。例えば、上の例証ではthesis statementに提起した問題の間に、三つの部分「the three problems」があります。この論文の第二段落ではこの三つの提起のうちの、一つ「the inadequate public transportation system」だけ展開していて、事実や経験した例で証明し、論じています。第三段落では第二の部分「congested streets」だけ論じています。第四段落では最後の部分「lack of reasonable housing」について論じています。言い換えると、筆者は序論で主張「thesis」を述べて、結論までこの主張だけ展開し、論しています。このような一貫性は正確な英作文として非常に重要です。　もしこの特性があれば、論文の構成が良いと見なされますが、結論まで主張をずっと通さなかったら、論文は支離滅裂と見なされて、説得力がありません。

英作文として、序論も大切ですが、結論を書くことはもっと難しいかもしれません。　結論でも筆者は主張について論じ続けますが、新しい証明や例や引用などは取り上げられません。その代わりに、まず主張についての展開を要約します。けれども、結論の後半で、今後の課題・例えば暗示や助言・を伝えなければなりません。この規則を守ることはとても難しいです。もし筆者の勧めた助言などが読者に本論問題と関連していないと思われたら、全体は統一を欠いている論文と見なされます。上の例題で、筆者は結論でthesisの三つの部分「the three problems」について論法を要約し、次に助言を述べています「these problems need to be corrected quickly, or the reputation of Metropolitan City will be forever tarnished」。この最後に述べた助言は「この論文で提起した三つの大問題のために、都市のイメージが段々ダウンしている」という主張との関係を理解しやすいので、構成は西洋の読者に正確な方法と見なされます。展開の段落での論拠も面白くて、しっかりしていると思われたら、この論文は読者をよく説得できます。

結論：

始めに言ったように、日本的発想による作文構成方法を批評するつもりはありません。色々な構成方法を分析し、比較対照を通じて、相違点を伝え、その結果欧米人の読者に誤解される可能性を分析し、記述したかったのです。上で説明したように、文法等を正確に書いても、筆者は日本的論文の構成方法を使ったら、欧米人の読者を時々混乱させます。この理由で、少し助言も述べたいと思います。大学の入学試験があるので、最近の高校や中学校での英語の教え方は英語の文法や言葉や会話を別々に教える傾向ですが、その他の大切なこと、例えば本当の英作文構成方法や西洋の文化と考え方などについて滅多に教えないと思います。これは残念なことだと思います。上の比較対照で、誤解される可能性を説明することによって、私はカリキュラムを改革することを提案したいと思います。もし私が日本人と日本語でコミュニケーションしたいなら、言葉や文法の知識だけでは不十分だと思います。　良い国際交流のためには、日本人のコミュニケーション傾向・例えば「遠回しに言うこと」や「起承転結」・なども理解するべきだと思います。日本人が外国人とコミュニケーションする場合にも同じことが言えると思います。高校や中学校の英語の先生はこのような事柄も理解し、教える方がいいと思います。

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Phonics Instruction

In response to Charles Jannuzi's article, "Key Concepts in Literacy: Phonics vs. Whole Language", (*LAC*, June 1997, pp. 5-7), Stephen Brivati sent us his thoughts on this issue. Specifically, he responds to this portion of Jannuzi's article:

> The best solution to this problem [a lack of reading readiness skills in EFL students in Japan] is probably phonics instruction before students are required to open and attempt to read their EFL textbooks. Systematic phonics attempts to emphasize the regularity of written English and to create an entry-level fluency in learners so that they can go on to learn to read for meaning. (Jannuzi, *LAC*, June 1997, p. 7).

Stephen Brivati writes:

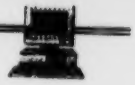
Although I am a convinced believer that a phonics-centered approach is the most efficacious way of resolving Japan's miserable failure in EFL—a view acquired through a great deal of experience teaching absolute begin ners—I think that the paragraph [quoted above] underscores the divide between the two 'camps'. Specifically, in its separation of phonics and textbook, which seems to imply that learning phonically should be independent from meaningful text.

My most successful teaching at elementary and junior high school involved using the approach advocated in David English House's [David Paul's] *Finding Out* series. The approach can be applied by studying the manual and materials, but it is not really that easy to use effectively without attending the training course that DEH offers. I am not usually a great fan of training courses associated with companies, but this one is worth investing time and money in even if you don't teach children.

The course materials as implemented in the classroom systematically introduce phonemes through discovery and games. However, right from the first lesson students are exposed to the mythical beast, "oral communication," as they look at interesting pictures of real life situations, speculate on what is happening and then listen to the language of that situation, all the while observing the written word. Students can then act out these situations and use the language immediately, and as the course progresses, the gap between oral production and perception and decoding of written language narrows as students come to recognize the phoneme-to-grapheme correspondences and how they operate in context. Without this kind of "whole wordish" counterweight, phonics is an academic exercise which is doing its own cause little good.

Charles Jannuzi responds:

These are points well made and well taken. I didn't explain enough in my article that I meant the official textbooks used in Japanese junior high schools. These textbooks are comprised of basic dialogues and longer "Let's Read" sections, but they do not provide the language support one would expect of either a phonics or whole-language approach for beginning FL literacy and LL. Also, allow me to say that I think that Japanese junior high school English education would greatly benefit from using supplemental materials like David Paul's or Yoko Matsuka's, which combine phonics and whole word methods for integration into the communicative EFL classroom. And, as Stephen points out, for effectiveness' sake, this would also require training of junior high English teachers and the native speaker Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) so they would know how to use these materials.



Editor's note: One cannot help but be amazed at the growing diversity in sources of literacy materials, and the growing electronic access to them via the World Wide Web. The following article is presented in recognition of this. The opinions, however, are the author's alone and do not necessarily represent those of the Foreign Language Literacy N-SIG or of Literacy Across Cultures.

Booksellers on the WWW

by **Charles Jannuzi**
<jannuzi@ThePentagon.com>

The following is a list of World Wide Web based booksellers. There are basically two kinds of virtual bookshops: those that have been set up because of the opportunities and low overhead that selling on the WWW provides, and traditional booksellers asserting a presence on the Web because it is supposed to change the way we shop.

You can browse their databases and catalogues and/or make e-mail inquiries for title searches. If you have an advanced web browser (e.g., Netscape Navigator 3.0 or MS Internet Explorer 3.01 or later) you can make secure credit card purchases at their websites, but remember to look for the pictographic key or lock on the browser when transmitting sensitive data. If the key is broken or the lock open, then you are not at a secure site. If you can't send securely, there is still always the telephone or fax machine. Also be aware that the advanced encryption technology that is available on certain software bought in the US and Canada may not be available on software purchased outside of those countries.

Ratings are based on my experiences navigating the sites and making actual database searches, title inquiries and purchases. A site might be very convenient to use, but the company might be poor at actually fulfilling orders, and *vice versa*. I have tried to take both considerations into account, although I didn't bankrupt myself testing every site with a book order. You might have different experiences with the same firms. Good luck and by all means let us know about your experiences searching for and ordering books online.

Complete WWW Bookshops

1. **Amazon Books** (***)
   http://www.amazon.com

Amazon promises 2.5 millions titles (1.5 million in print and 1 million out of print). I found the site slow going; it took a long time to track down titles I wanted to order. The MS Internet Explorer encountered problems at a site that was probably originally designed for Netscape Navigator. When I reported the bug as the command that appeared in a message from their web site told me to do, I was then told to contact the people at MS. I got the feeling that customer service was somewhat lacking. Order fulfillment (shipment to Japan) has always been good, though.

There are a few particular complaints I have about Amazon. (1) When I researched this article, they didn't want to handle title searches and other such inquiries through e-mail or by way of a template-type inquiry form at their website. Also, I was looking for an annotated version of Pilgrim's Progress. A database search yielded 14 different editions.

When I asked by e-mail which one had the desired annotations, the reply was, "I don't know." Why don't you order all 14 and return the ones you don't want?" No thank you. (2) At the time I did the research for this article (spring and summer 1997), the site was often slower than most other of the WWW sites or couldn't be reached because the server was overwhelmed with shoppers.

Of course, anyone who wants to buy books over the Web should visit the giant Amazon, but don't be afraid to check out the other sites. There are plenty of other firms out there. Many seem to know books better, and may value you more as a customer.

2. **Books Now** (****)
http://www.booksnow.com

Another complete book service with a few differences. They have a searchable database, but they also enthusiastically undertake title searches (with enquiries taken via e-mail or over the Web using the form provided). I found everything to work faster than Amazon. The "identify" feature allows you to record the contents of your "shopping cart" and to purchase on a later visit. One other service might be of interest to those individuals and organizations running websites: if you set up your website to sell books through Books Now, you receive an 8% commission on sales.

3. **Any Book International** (formerly BookServe International) (****)
http://www.anybook.com

Like Books Now, they have a book search service (including out-of-print titles); they have to as there is no on-line catalogue/database. Still, this is no problem as you just send them your requests from a form at their website or via e-mail and they send you back the search results. I found it more convenient than those long download times doing searches at Amazon. Once you know the titles and editions you want to order, the site is set up for secure credit card purchases. For serious scholars and teachers, they also offer free bibliography and educational services.

4. **Book Stacks** (****)
http://www.books.com

Fewer titles than the above three, but deeper discounts. There is, for example, a Frequent Buyers Club offering a 30% discount, and purchases earn credits redeemable for free books. I searched their database and made a secure credit card purchase. Again, the site seemed to work faster than Amazon's. They will also undertake e-mailed title searches.

5. **Wordsworth Books** (****)
http://www.wordsworth.com

Searchable database, catalog, title inquiries, secure purchasing; it's all here. I found the site slow navigating, but no slower than Amazon. The function that is normally called "shopping cart" is here called "virtual bag".

6. **Telegraph Books Direct (TBD)** (****)
http://www.telegraph.co.uk

This is a nice development: a service offering all the books in print in the U.K. (where two times more different titles are published annually than in the U.S.). It is a little more difficult to get to, however, than the five above. First you have to register to use the Electronic Telegraph (ET) site. Once you have your identification and password you can get to the ET (one of the two best electronic newspapers available, the other being the Electronic Christian Science Monitor). At the ET, you can click on "Books" and you are taken to TBD. You can inquire for title searches and you can also do regular virtual shopping by searching a database, placing items in a shopping cart, and making a secure credit card purchase.

7. **Barnes and Noble Bookseller** (***1/2)
http://www.BarnesandNoble.com

Barnes and Noble have long been known for their retail stores and mail order service. Their deep discounts now extend to some 400,000 titles available through their website, which is set up very similar to Amazon's. Like Amazon, they do not gladly undertake search requests via e-mail, but they do allow you to do searches of the million or so books in print at their website using various parameters. B & N also offers a special membership that lets you engage in discussion threads about and reviews of the books.

8. **Skysoft** (***1/2)
http://www.sky.co.jp

Skysoft offers a large selection, and orders can be done online as well as by fax. Right now (August 1997), as I understand it, you pick up and pay for your orders at certain designated book stores in Japan. If you live in Japan and can read Japanese with your browser, this might well be the best and cheapest way to order books from the USA. A full-service website as well as an English-language page will be available soon, too. A promising development for bookselling on the Japan-side of the WWW.

Also worth considering

The following are not completely set up for total service via the WWW but are superior booksellers with a presence on the Web.

9. **The Reader's Catalog** (****)
http://www.nybooks.com

This firm publishes the Reader's Catalog, which is a clear, concise, knowledgeable guide to "40,000 of the best books in print". The complete website—which will include a downloadable copy of the catalog and an additional 300,000 title searchable database—is still under construction. I e-mailed them my request for a title search, faxed them my credit card, and then placed my order at their website. The site also offers on-line editions of the *New York Review of Books* and *Granta*. They also have a snail-mail mailing list for regular updates to the RC.

10. **PostScript** (****)
http://www.sandpiper.co.uk/postscript

This is an excellent discount book service in the U.K. They publish catalogues of general interest and academic titles quarterly. You can browse their current catalogues at the website and send inquiries and orders from the orders page or via e-mail. The site was not yet secure for sending credit card numbers. According to the instructions, if you place an order on their order page without the credit card information, they will contact you. I have also been told it is safe to send credit card numbers via e-mail. But it might be better to send the necessary data in two different e-mails (like credit card number in one; date of expiry, etc. in another). You can also ask to be placed on their snail-mail mailing list.

Visit the FLL N-SIG's Web Site

http:/langue.hyper.chubu.ac.jp/jalt/nsig/fll/fll.htm

The June issue of *Literacy Across Cultures* can be seen at our web site. This and future issues of *LAC* will also be placed there, so please visit regularly. Please be aware that we may be moving soon, but the site address above will get you anywhere we go, as will **<http://www.thepentagon.com/ jannuzi>**. Also, the site is in transition, so we appreciate any reports about bugs, problems with browsers, etc. We don't want the site to be limited to a newsletter archive, so we appreciate contributions and content of all types. For information contact David Dycus <dcdycus@ asu.aasa.ac. jp> or Charles Jannuzi <jannuzi@ edu00.f-edu.fukui-u.ac.jp>.

Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition: A Rationale for Pedagogy. James Coady and Thomas Huckin (Eds.). Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press, 1996. Pp.x +299. ISBN 0-521-56764-5 (soft cover).

Vocabulary has long been one of ESL's wallflowers, ignored in favor of more exotic and attractive subjects. Fortunately, vocabulary in L2 learning is starting to turn some heads again, as *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition* will attest. It is a collection of articles offering concise, informative surveys of research on various aspects of L2 vocabulary acquisition, including the link between reading and vocabulary acquisition.

The book has five sections. The first, "Setting the Stage," begins with a historical review of trends in L2 language instruction, followed by "The Lexical Plight in Second Language Reading," which challenges commonly-held assumptions about the usefulness of guessing word meaning from context. The section ends with an article discussing how orthographic knowledge affects L2 processing, which points out that different orthographies (like logographic systems, such as Japanese *kanji*) can contribute to different kinds of processing and reading strategies.

The second section carries three case studies of vocabulary acquisition. The first describes a study of the radically different approaches of a Greek and a Korean student to guessing word meaning from context. The next two describe one researcher's long-term study of his own experience learning Hebrew words, and another's Portugese reading and vocabulary development during a five-month stay in Brazil.

Part III of the book is devoted to empirical research, including a study of vocabulary acquisition using an experimental language, and a study of an important but rarely looked at topic: vocabulary acquisition by *advanced* learners and how their passive knowledge of rare words and complex lexical units increases. The last article in this section is a study comparing vocabulary learning by incidental exposure through reading versus reading plus vocabulary instruction. The findings indicate that, contrary to some claims, direct teaching of vocabulary can lead to better learning gains.

The next section of the book, "Pedagogy," includes articles on mnemonic methods in vocabulary teaching, vocabulary acquisition through extensive reading, methods for effective vocabulary instruction, and a discussion of the pedagogical implications of the lexical approach. The fifth and final section of the book contains a summary article by James Coady on the state of vocabulary acquisition research today.

This book is certainly not meant as an introductory text to the subject. Still, most of the articles, especially those in the "Pedagogy" section , are accessible to anyone with a background in ESL reading. Another plus is that authors who wrote for *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading* (1988) (another book in the Cambridge Applied Linguistics series) have articles in this book, so a reader familiar with both books can gain sense of how trends in reading studies and vocabulary acquisition are moving. *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition* is well worth reading, and certainly gives this neglected subject the attention it has long deserved.

Reviewed by David Dycus
Aichi Shukutoku University

Are you a JALT member? Then join us!

The Foreign Language Literacy National Special Interest Group is growing fast, and with your help we can soon have the 50 members we need to be fully recognized by JALT. If you are a JALT member and have an interest in some facet of reading, writing and/or literacy, please join us!

JALT members can join the FLL N-SIG by sending ¥1500 to the JALT Central Office using the postal money transfer (*yubin furikae*) form included in issues of *The Language Teacher*. On the line labeled "Other", write "FLL N-SIG (forming)." There is no need to renew your membership each year **until** we reach 50 members and become fully recognized, so w hy not join today?

Not a JALT member?

Only JALT members can become members of the FLL N-SIG. However, at present, non-members in any country can receive copies of our newsletter, *Literacy Across Cultures*, and are encouraged to contribute articles, reviews, and perspective pieces to it. In addition, we are sending this newsletter out in an e-mail version, which you can receive by contacting Charles Jannuzi (jannuzi@ edu00. f-edu. fukui-u.ac.jp). For information on obtaining a printed version, contact David Dycus by e-mail at <dcdycus@ asu.aasa. ac. jp> or at the contact address in the "Officers and Contact Information" section on page 30.

Call for Submissions

Literacy Across Cultures, the newsletter of JALT's Foreign Language Literacy N-SIG, welcomes submissions, in English or Japanese, on topics related to reading and writing and their social product, literacy. We invite any interested person to submit:

- articles (around1000-3000 words, not heavily referenced)
- perspective/opinion pieces
- book reviews
- annotated bibliographies
- short summaries/reviews of journal articles
- responses to *LAC* articles
- descriptions/reviews of literacy-relatedWorld Wide Web sites
- classroom and teaching tips

for upcoming issues. In addition, we welcome lists of references on topics related to literacy, both for the newsletter and to help build a references list to include in our home page. The deadline is Nov. 20, 1997 for submissions to be considered for the December, 1997 issue. Submissions received after that will be considered for future issues. We encourage relevant submissions that may not fit into any of the categories above.

Submissions can be made in the following ways:

1) As attachments to an e-mail message to the newletter editor. The text should be provided twice, once in a Text file (.TXT) format and once in a Rich Text Format (.RTF). The e-mail message should include a brief message to the editor explaining the content of the submission and a short personal biography to accompany the submission if accepted. The message should include information about what computer OS was used (Mac or IBM) and what word processor was

used, including the version number of that software. If possible, a version saved in a Word Perfect format (ver 5.2 to 7.0) would be appreciated. It should be sent to David Dycus, the newsletter editor, at <dcdycus@asu.aasa. ac.jp>.

2) On a 1.44 mb floppy disk accompanied by a printed version of the submission. The text on the floppy disk should be provided in 3 formats, once in a Text file (.TXT) format and once in a Rich Text Format (.RTF), and once in whatever the original format of the wordprocessing software is. If possible, a version saved in a Word Perfect format (version 5.2 to 7.0) would be appreciated. A short personal biography should accompany the submission. It should be sent to:

David Dycus
Aichi Shukutoku University
9 Katahira, Nagakute, Nagakute-cho,
Aichi-gun, Aichi-ken 480-11 JAPAN.

Anyone with questions can contact David Dycus at the addresses above, or by FAX at 0568-85-2560 (outside of Japan, that is 81-568-85-2560)

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